

Linking the dots among destination images, place attachment, and revisit intentions: A study among British and Russian tourists

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**ABSTRACT**

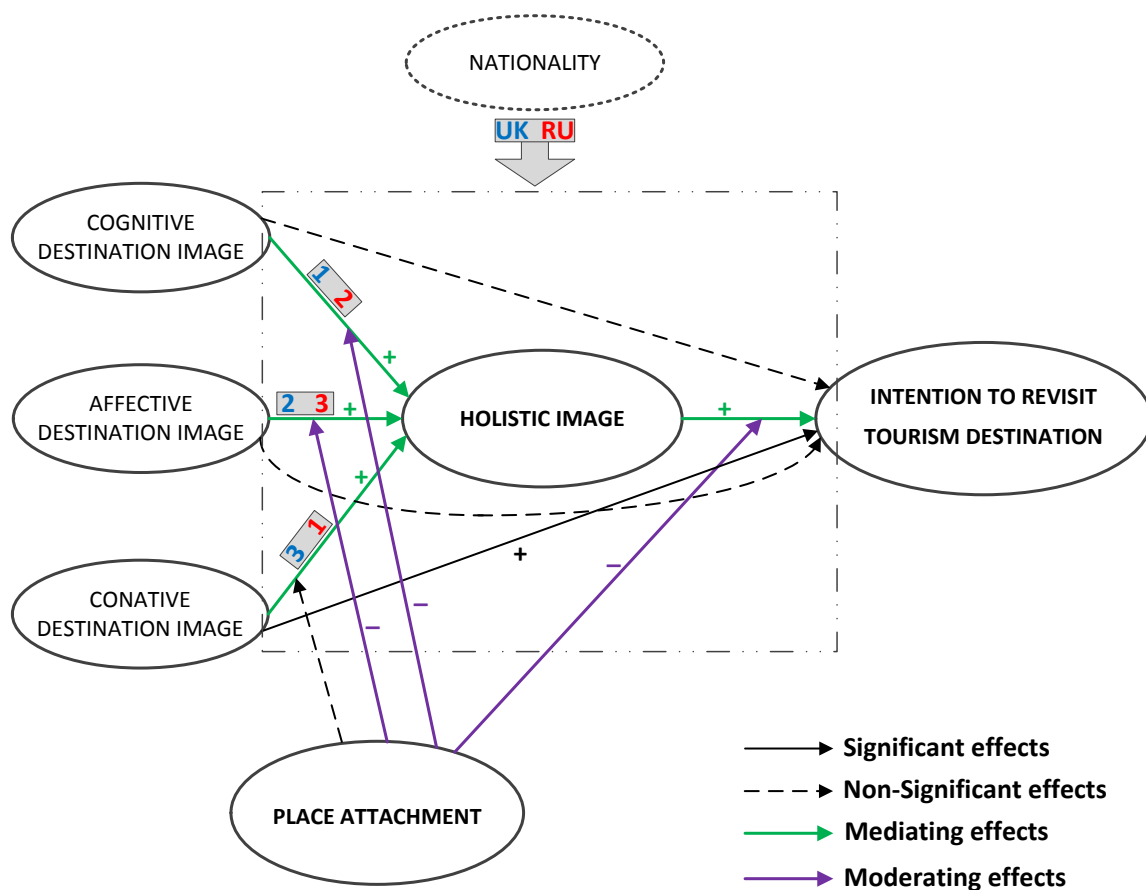
Limited evidence suggests that the incorporation of both image components (cognitive, affective, and conative) and holistic image is meaningful for predicting tourists' revisit intentions. Extending this line of research, the present study aims to unravel the relative influence that each component of image has directly and indirectly, via holistic image, on revisit intentions. In doing so, we incorporate two national samples (British and Russians) of diverse tourist profile and significantly different levels of visitation frequency to investigate place attachment as a moderator. Evidence from 1362 British and 1164 Russian tourists indicated that all image components have a positive indirect effect on revisit intention via holistic image, while conative has also a direct one. As expected, the image components rank differently for British and Russian tourists. The indirect effects of destination images on revisit intention, except conative, are conditional and, interestingly, most of these are stronger for tourists with low PA.

**Keywords:** Destination image; Place attachment; Revisit Intention; Moderated mediation; UK; Russia

## HIGHLIGHTS

- All three image components and holistic image are crucial for predicting tourist revisit intention.
- The relative importance of image components differs between British and Russian tourists.
- Holistic image mediates the effect of image components on revisit intention.
- Place attachment moderates the effects of images on revisit intention.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



## 1. Introduction

Destination images are central to the tourists' decision making process, attracting hence researchers' constant attention (e.g. Beerli & Martin, 2004a; Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, & Chen, 2015; Chen, Lai, Petrick, & Lin, 2016). They have been examined as antecedents of tourists' intention to visit (e.g. Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Hung & Petrick, 2012; Whang, Yong, & Ko, 2016) and revisit a destination (e.g. Assaker, Vinzi & O'Connor, 2011; Cheng & Lu, 2013; Chew & Jahari, 2014), offering practitioners the opportunity to appropriately design, deliver and promote the destination product (Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2010; Um & Crompton, 1990). Interestingly, however, there is a latent debate as to the examination of components of image for predicting tourists' intentional behaviors over holistic image. As regards components, the vast majority of researchers have adopted the typology of Gartner (1994) (i.e. cognitive, affective, and conative image) and have basically examined the direct or the indirect effect of the components of image on tourists' visit and revisit intention (e.g. Baloglu & Love, 2005; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011). Concerning holistic image, a number of researchers has recently incorporated only holistic image, suggesting that it may better capture tourists' imagery impressions (Brown, Smith, & Assaker, 2016; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, 2015). The researchers that have adopted both components of image and holistic image are fewer (e.g. Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Beerli & Martin, 2004a; Bigné, Sánchez, & Blas, 2009; Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, & Hou, 2007), principally agreeing with Ahmed (1991) and Echtner and Richie (1993), who postulate that both holistic image and components of image need to be examined as they can be different.

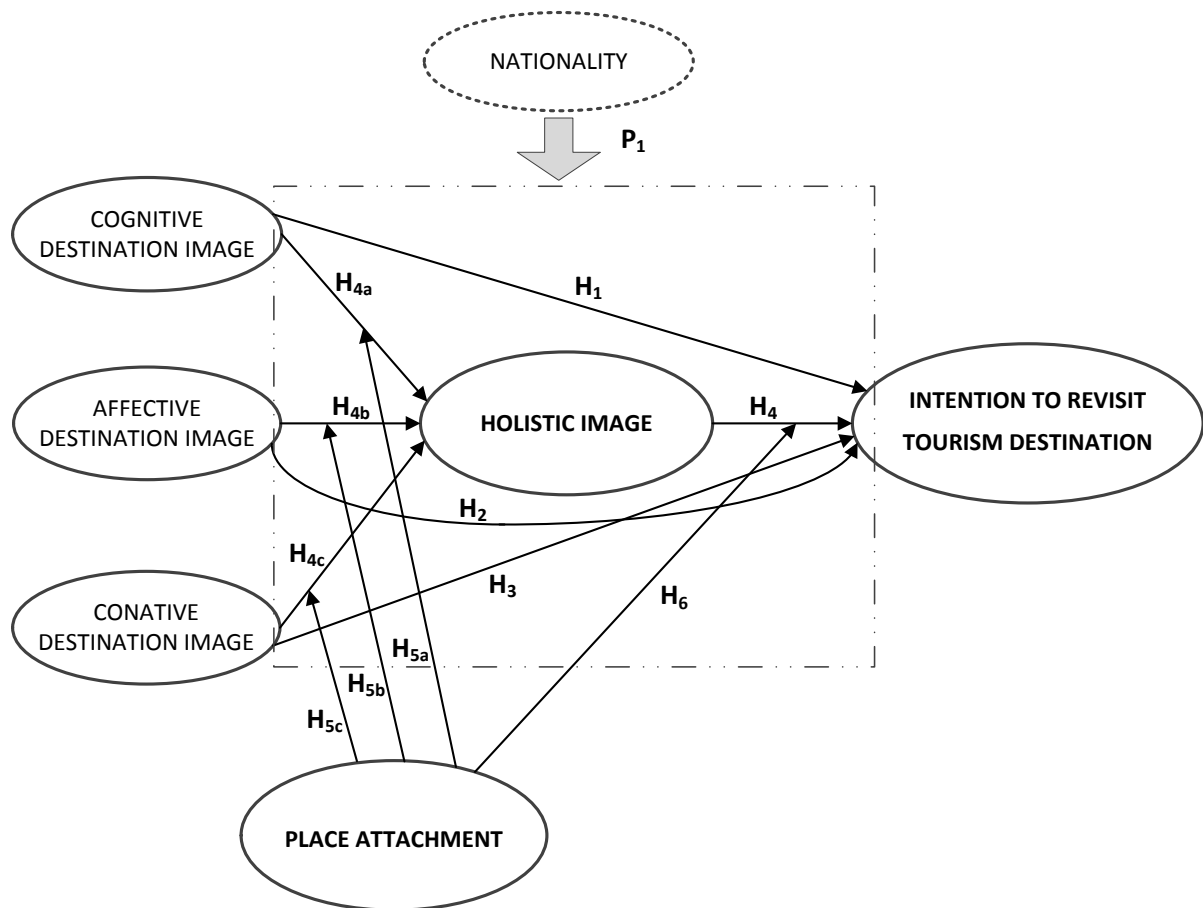
In almost all cases that components of destinations images have been investigated, researchers focus only on cognitive and affective image, excluding conative (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). It is only recently that Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou, & Andronikidis (2016) concluded that conative is essential for delineating tourists' intention to revisit a destination.

Still, the relative importance of the three components remains unclear. As Bigné et al. (2009, p. 716) write “no study has been made of which image dimensions exercise the greatest influence over the tourist’s future behavior intentions”. Extending this line of thinking, the present study seeks to delineate the relative significance of each destination image component when predicting tourists’ revisit intentions, both directly and indirectly, via holistic image. In doing so, the present study adopts a cross-cultural approach, incorporating two groups of tourists that are largely different, both in general and towards the destination under investigation (Chalkidiki, Greece). In particular, British tourists tend to be more loyal and more likely to return to a destination (Kozak, 2001), compared to Russian tourists who are less destination loyal and more eager to see more of the world, probably because they are less experienced travelers (Kozak & Martin, 2012). As regards Greece, and Chalkidiki in particular, British tourists comprise a ‘traditional’ tourist group, whereas Russians comprise a relatively new but growing tourist group (European Travel Commission, 2010). Evidently, British tourists are more likely to have visited the Greek tourism destination under investigation more times than their Russian counterparts. This approach could better unravel the nature and potential interrelationships of imagery associations developed by tourists of different origins when evaluating tourism destinations, allowing hence stronger evidence regarding the relative importance of all three components of destination images over revisit intentions.

Moreover, given that the two populations under investigation differ in terms of visitation frequency and that visitation frequency has a strong positive relationship with place attachment (PA) (e.g. Halpenny, 2010; George & George, 2004; Lawrence, 2012; Moore & Graefe, 1994), we also examine the moderating role of PA in an attempt to offer richer insights regarding tourists’ revisit intentions. PA is a pivotal tool in understanding tourist behavior (i.e. Gross & Brown, 2008; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004; Lee, Kyle, &

Scott, 2012; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon, Smith, & Weiler, 2013). As Lee, Graefe, & Burns (2007) note, “place attachment plays a formative role in explaining behavioral and conative phenomena” (p. 467). In fact, King, Chen, & Funk (2015, p. 10) argued that the strength of PA is that it could act as a moderator since “Attitude strength research indicates the psychological significance one ascribes to an attitude represents the level of caring and concern attached to the attitude object”. All hypothesized relationships appear in Figure 1.

The contributions of this study are multiple. First, it highlights the significance of investigating all three components of image (i.e. cognitive, affective and conative) to predict tourists’ behavioral intentions. Second, it fills the gap of knowledge on the relative importance of these three components of image for tourists’ decision making process, testing the suggested model across two tourist populations. Third, it argues over the value of incorporating the combined effect of components of image and holistic image when examining behavioral intentions, joining the limited number of researchers already suggesting so. Important to note is that by testing relationships across two substantially different national tourist populations, this study also addresses the concern of researchers (e.g. Malhotra, Peterson, & Kleiser, 1998; Moura, Gnoth, & Deans, 2015) who posit that significant differences may exist between western and non-western samples, allowing hence safer conclusions. Last but not least, it highlights the fundamental role of PA when predicting revisit intention of tourists, revealing which way, and to what extent PA regulates the causal relationship between the three distinct components of destination image, holistic image, and revisit intention. Since so far only a handful of research examine PA as a moderator in any context (King, Chen, & Funk, 2015; Ram, Bjork, & Weidenfeld, 2016), the present study also adds on the moderating role of PA in the tourist decision making process in general and specifically in the effect that components of image have on tourists’ revisit intention via holistic image.



**Fig. 1.** The hypothesized model with relevant hypotheses.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 The profile of British and Russian tourists

Researchers have argued that the significance attributed to destinations and their aspects may vary based on individuals' values relating to national culture (i.e. Aaker & Schmitt, 2001; Kim & McKercher, 2011; Smith & Bond, 1999). Previous research has also long theorized the heterogeneous nature of tourist motivation (i.e. Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Park & Yoon, 2009; Plog, 1974). In addition, differences exist in terms of how tourists from different nationalities attach importance levels to travel motivations (Kozak, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004a; Pearce, 1991; Jang & Cai, 2002).

In this vein, Jang & Cai (2002) concluded that the most important motives for British tourists who travel to overseas destinations were “knowledge seeking”, “escape”, “family and friend togetherness”. Kozak (2001) suggested that British tourists’ intentions to visit a holiday destination in the future are formulated on the basis of their previous experiences and level of overall satisfaction. In a study investigating travel motivation of tourists from different nationalities towards summer destinations, British tourists were found to value “having fun” and “mixing with other tourists” more than tourists of any other nationality (Andreu, Kozak, Avci, & Cifter, 2005). Similarly, Wickens (2002) found that all participants were excited with the beauty of the places they visited in Chalkidiki, Greece and “... had a fundamental wish for familiarity at the level of the basics (like toilets, cleanliness, and the like)” (p.836), and concluded that the main factors that motivated British tourists visiting Chalkidiki were “the wish to escape from everyday life”, “the pursuit of pleasure”, and “ontological security” (p. 842).

UK is one of the fastest-growing source of the tourist market globally (ITB Berlin, 2014), and with a 5% increase in outbound tourism in 2014 it features as a top international performer. Moreover, UK belongs to the group of non-eurozone outbound tourist markets that appear to be developing stronger than any other corresponding Eurozone market (ITB Berlin, 2014). Concerning Greece, British tourists are the second largest tourist market, comprising 10.3% (1,846,333 tourists) and 9.5% (2,089,529) of the total market respectively for 2013 and 2014. Greece ranks sixth among the most popular destinations for British tourists (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2015).

As regards Russian tourists, these were the third largest tourist market for Greece in 2013 representing a 7.5% (1,352,901) of the total market, while in 2014 they ranked fifth (5.7% and 1,250,174 tourists respectively). Moreover, Greece is positioned among the top five most popular destinations for Russian tourists (Embassy of Greece in the Russian

Federation, 2014). Thus, Russia remains an important market for tourism related services, despite the sharp drop of the Russian Ruble exchange rate and the political crisis in Ukraine (ITB Berlin, 2014).

Russians comprise a relatively new travel group for the global tourism industry (Lysikova, 2012), as they started travelling massively in the 2000s. Currently, there is an increasing flow of tourists to Europe and other destinations worldwide. Political and economic developments have allowed Russian tourists to enjoy vacation abroad, which is generally considered as a major achievement for the Russian population (European Travel Commission, 2009). Russians are less experienced tourists utilizing different criteria sets for assessing their experiences compared to more traditional tourists (e.g. the British).

Extant evidence identifies “Favorable weather in the selected season”, “Affordable price”, “Good reviews from friends and family”, “Lack of political crisis in the country”, “Level of service in the country”, and “Friendly locals” as the most important reasons for Russian tourists selecting Greece for their vacation (Embassy of Greece in the Russian Federation, 2014). Additionally, it appears that previous positive experiences are the cornerstone for planning future excursions Russian tourists (European Travel Commission, 2009). Such experiences may develop when “the destination has a nice climate, scenery, excellent service, food and drinks, good value, and feeling of freedom” (Kozak & Martin, 2012, p. 191). In their study, Whang et al. (2016) suggested that Russian tourists seek also learning about the country and culture. Thus, they are more likely to engage in activities like sightseeing, interacting with the locals, enjoying nightlife and shopping (Embassy of Greece in the Russian Federation, 2014). In this way, Russian tourists want to combine sightseeing with sun and sand relaxation, and enjoyment spending on average half their holiday relaxing on the beach (Kozak & Martin, 2012). Evidently, British and Russians exhibit different



tourist profiles, with regards not only to visitation frequency, but also to selection criteria, motivations, and loyalty patterns.

## *2.2 Destination images*

Theorists in tourism management have defined images as sets of impressions, ideas, expectations and emotional thoughts tourists maintain of a place (i.e. Assaker, 2014), representing associations and pieces of information connected with a destination (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993). Images reflect the perceptions of tourists of a destination that are formed in their memory (Cai, 2002). The attribute-based conceptualization of destination image originally developed by Gartner (1993) suggests that destination image consists of three components, namely, cognitive, affective and conative. Cognitive appraisals of a destination comprise beliefs and associated knowledge, which reflect tourists' evaluations of the perceived attributes of the destination (i.e. Bigné et al., 2009). The affective image component represents tourists' emotional responses or appraisals of the destination (i.e. Hallmann, Zehrer, & Müller, 2014), while the conative image component designates tourists' active consideration of a place as a potential travel destination, outlining a desired future state tourists want to carry out for themselves (i.e. Dann, 1996; White, 2014). Surprisingly, though, literature seems to have omitted the measurement of conative image as a distinct construct (Tasci, 2009), as many scholars consider it identical to intention or/and analogous to behavior (e.g. Chen & Phou, 2013; King et al., 2015; Styliadis, Belhassen, & Shani, 2015). Recently, however, numerous researchers agree that conative image is indispensable and irreplaceable for rendering tourists' perceived image, having a distinct role compared to behavioral intentions (e.g. Chen, Ji, & Funk, 2014; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008; Stylos et al., 2016; White, 2014).

The aforementioned approach represents the discursive processing of destination-related information, as it depends more upon pieces of information for individual attributes,

while another approach is the imagery processing, which assumes more “gestalt” forms in representing information in working memory, reflecting tourists’ overall impressions of a destination (MacInnis & Price, 1987). Echtner and Ritchie (1993) proposed a conceptualization of destination image capturing both destination image approaches, namely, the attribute-based and the holistic. Concerning the conceptualization of holistic image, this remains vague as some consider it to be the sum of the three components, while others posit that it is greater than the sum of its parts (Bigné et al., 2009). As Echtner and Ritchie (1993) postulate, “Holistic and unique images are particularly important in determining how a particular destination is categorized (stereotype holistic impressions) and differentiated (unique attractions, auras) in the minds of the targeted markets” (p.12). Towards this end, few researchers have examined the effect of cognitive and/or affective image on holistic image and in turn on attitudinal outcomes of tourists. For instance, some researchers have investigated the effect of cognitive image on holistic image, via affective image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a,b; Beerli & Martín, 2004a,b; Lin et al., 2007; Stern & Krakover, 1993). To the best of our knowledge, there are only three studies incorporating one or more components of image and holistic image to predict tourists’ attitudinal responses. Specifically, Bigné et al.(2009) investigated the impact that the cognitive component of image has upon intention to recommend via – among others - holistic image, Qu et al. (2011) recognized holistic (overall image) as mediator between image components and tourists’ increased visitation, while Stylos and his colleagues (2016) have recognized holistic image as an explanatory mechanism in the relationship between affective and conative image and, in turn, tourists’ intention to revisit a destination. Taken together, the combined examination of components of destination image and holistic image may allow safer conclusions regarding the distinctiveness of the two approaches, and the need to incorporate both when predicting tourists’ attitudinal outcomes.

### *2.3 Destination images and intention to revisit a destination*

According to Crompton's (1992) theory of destination choice set formation, tourists' decision making is a sequential process that leads them to selecting a certain destination when they perceive that respective destination's attributes would satisfy their needs. This is due to tourists' tendency to categorize their alternatives based on a range of criteria, e.g. destination images (pull factors), personal motivations (push factors), and availability of time and funds (situational constraints) (Gilbert, 1991; Goodall, 1991). Based on a sequence of similar processes while accumulating prior experiences, tourists' intention to revisit a destination is considered a proxy to tourists' actual return to a destination (Loureiro, 2014; Prayag & Ryan, 2012) and loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Hence, its antecedents have attracted increased attention from both theorists and practitioners. Concerning destination images in particular, as Stringer (1984, p. 150) postulated, they are a "crucial basis of choice and decision making in tourism". In this vein, previous evidence has already revealed the positive direct effect of both cognitive and affective images on tourists' intentions to revisit a destination (Bigné et al., 2009; Chew & Jahari, 2014), while Stylos et al. (2016) have also recognized the positive effect of conative images. Generally, tourists are more likely to select a destination if they have a strong positive image of it (i.e. Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Prayag, 2009). As a consequence, we hypothesize that:

*H<sub>1</sub>: Cognitive destination image has a positive direct effect on British and Russian tourist's intention to revisit a destination.*

*H<sub>2</sub>: Affective destination image has a positive direct effect on British and Russian tourists' intention to revisit a destination.*

*H<sub>3</sub>: Conative destination image has a positive direct effect on British and Russian tourists' intention to revisit a destination.*

Our expectation for the mediating role of holistic image is based on multiple previous indications. First, researchers have already shown the direct and/or indirect effect that cognitive and affective image have on holistic image (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a,b; Baloglu & Love, 2005; Beerli & Martin, 2004a,b; Lin et al., 2007). Second, holistic image has already been recognized as an antecedent of tourists' intention to return (e.g. Bigné et al., 2009; Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2015). The mediating role of holistic image in other relationships has already been tested, though to limited extent. Prayag (2009) recognized the mediating role of holistic image in the relationship between cognitive aspects of image and future behavior. Qu et al. (2011) denoted that the establishment of a positive overall destination image derived from image component associations is crucial for increasing repeat visitation and tourism destination competitiveness. In a similar sense, Stylos et al. (2016) found that holistic image is a transmitting mechanism for the effect of affective and conative images on tourists' revisit intention. Similarly, we hypothesize that:

*H<sub>4</sub>: Holistic image positively mediates the relationship between destination images and intention to revisit a destination, for both British and Russian tourists.*

*H<sub>4a</sub>: Holistic image positively mediates the relationship between cognitive image and tourists' intention to revisit a destination, for both British and Russian tourists.*

*H<sub>4b</sub>: Holistic image positively mediates the relationship between affective image and tourists' intention to revisit a destination, for both British and Russian tourists.*

*H<sub>4c</sub>: Holistic image positively mediates the relationship between conative image and tourists' intention to revisit a destination, for both British and Russian tourists.*

#### *2.4 Place attachment and its moderating role*

People develop and maintain strong relationships with places (i.e. Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Williams & Vaske, 2003), as places are linked with attitudes, values, and beliefs (Sack, 1992). Drawing upon the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969, 1975), PA is a response to complex experiences that relate to a certain location, due to the value (i.e. functionality, specificity) attributed to it (Milligan, 1998). Hence, research in geography and environmental studies has identified PA as a salient construct (i.e. Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004; Scannell & Gifford, 2010), representing the “affective bond or link between people and specific places” (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001) while Altman and Low (1992, p. 5) identified PA as “an interplay of affect and emotions, knowledge and beliefs, and behaviors and actions in reference to a place”.

Yet, the nature of PA is rather vague, with multiple diverse and even contradictory approaches adopted. For instance, the most widely accepted approach is the one recognizing its two-dimensional nature, comprising of place identity (emotional attachment) and place dependence (functional attachment) (i.e. George & George, 2004; Gross & Brown, 2008; Halpenny, 2010; Lee et al., 2012; Tsai, 2012; Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). Other researchers have added place social bonding (Kyle, Graefe, Manning & Bacon, 2004; Kyle, Graefe, Manning & Bacon, 2003; Kyle, Mowen, et al. 2004) and place affect (i.e. Halpenny, 2010; Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015; Ramkissoon et al., 2013) to these dimensions. Interestingly, a handful of researchers recently acknowledged the unidimensional nature of PA, considering it a unified latent variable (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005; Ramkissoon, Weiler, & Smith, 2012) or an observational construct (Prayag & Ryan, 2012).

In tourism literature, PA has been adopted to reflect the personal connection visitors develop toward a destination (Morais & Lin, 2010). Generally, it has been widely accepted that PA is central to tourists’ intentions and behavior (i.e. Lee & Shen 2013; Neuvonen,

Pouta, & Sievänen, 2010; Petrick, 2004; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). In this vein, PA has been operationalized as an antecedent (i.e. Hwang et al., 2005; Yuksel et al., 2010), a consequence (i.e. Gross & Brown, 2008; Kyle et al., 2004; Rollero & Piccoli, 2010), a mediator between tourists' attitudes and their intention to visit (i.e. Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Tsai, 2012), and rarely a moderator (Chung, Kyle, Petrick, & Absher, 2011; Kyle et al., 2003). Kyle et al. (2003) investigated the two sub-dimensions of place identity and place dependence as moderators on the relationship between visitors' attitudes toward fee program and fee spending support and concluded that it is the place identity dimension that exerts a stronger effect. In a similar vein, Chung et al. (2011) tested the moderating role of PA among visitors of a national forest, confirming that only the degree of the place identity sub-dimension of PA moderates the effect of price fairness on spending support. Finally, King et al. (2015) have examined the moderating role of PA in the longitudinal evolvement of destination images in the eyes of tourists. As Gross & Brown (2008) posited, however, PA represents the personal meaning that tourists may attribute to a destination, allowing for individualized perspectives. Interestingly, within tourism research, the moderating role of PA has attracted very limited attention. Extending this line of thinking, we assume that the effect of destination images on revisit intention could be enhanced when the strength of PA is relatively high. Hence, we expect that:

*H<sub>5</sub>: PA moderates the effect of components of destination image on holistic image, such that their effect will be stronger for both British and Russian tourists with high PA.*

*H<sub>5a</sub>: PA moderates the effect of cognitive destination image on holistic image, such that its effect will be stronger for both British and Russian tourists with high PA versus those with low PA.*

*H<sub>5b</sub>: PA moderates the effect of affective destination image on holistic image, such that its effect will be stronger for both British and Russian tourists with high PA versus those with low PA.*

*H<sub>5c</sub>: PA moderates the effect of conative destination image on holistic image, such that its effect will be stronger for both British and Russian tourists with high PA versus those with low PA.*

*H<sub>6</sub>: PA moderates the indirect effect of components of destination image on revisit intention via holistic image, such that their effect will be stronger for both British and Russian tourists with high PA versus those with low PA.*

Nevertheless, it is important to note that nationality and cultural differences are essential for understanding different perceptions of places (Beerli & Martin, 2004b; Ryan & Cave, 2005) as it appears to influence the way that tourists perceive the cognitive and affective image of a destination (Calatone, di Benedetto, Hakam, & Bojanic, 1989; Kozak, Bigné, & Andreu, 2004). Nationality has been even considered to be a proxy of culture (Yeniyurt & Townsend, 2003) explaining differences in destination images in the eyes of tourists coming from different countries (Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Whang et al., 2016).

Any differences between nations with regards to image components' ranking and selection of tourism destinations may be traced back to the various levels of tourists' experience in travelling, as well as variations in psychographics (Hwang, Gretzel, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2006). Experienced travelers may have a broader travel database of activities in mind than less experienced ones, along with specific procedures to use in their effort to make the most out of their vacations, which may also lead to routine mental processes (Lehto et al., 2006). On the other hand, less experienced travelers or first-timers to a specific destination

rely mainly on external information they may access from various media (Li, Cheng, Kim, & Petrick, 2008). Although their overall information needs gradually decrease, experienced tourists actually spent more energy searching for hotel and destination information (Lehto, Kim, & Morrison, 2006).

As aforementioned, through the years British tourists have accumulated more travel experience and may activate more cognitive processing compared to Russians. As a result, the collection of images utilized by British tourists and their corresponding associations and assessments are richer and more complex compared to those for Russian tourists. It is expected then, that the relative importance of image components attributed by the two groups of tourists may vary. Hence, given that the two populations display different travelling profile (Kozak, 2001; Kozak & Martin, 2012), we expect that:

$P_1$ : The moderated mediation effects of destination image components on intention to revisit are of different relative importance for British and Russian tourists.

### **3. Method**

#### *3.1 Study One*

##### *3.1.1 Methodology and Procedures*

In accordance with Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson (2010), the number of initial observed variables in this study requires a sample size of 735 (i.e.  $15 \times 49$  indicators). On the other hand, power analysis suggests a sample of 1051 responses (effect size=0.5; size=0.5;  $\alpha=0.05$ ; power=0.95;  $df=2934$ ; critical  $\chi^2=3061.127$ ). Consequently, a conservative minimum acceptable total sample size for the tourist market under study is 1051.

Study One involved a survey of tourists permanently residing in the UK. Specific actions have been undertaken to avoid or minimize coverage, sampling, non-response and



measurement errors (Davidshofer & Murphy, 2005). Coverage error has been diminished by targeting the sampling process only to departing tourists towards British airports; any completed questionnaire that did not come under the targeted population was excluded from the data analysis. Regarding the random sampling error, this can be largely avoided by increasing the sample size (Moutinho & Chien, 2007). Hence, in the current study, the final size of the usable questionnaires is 1362, which results in a maximum sampling error of 2.66%. To avoid systematic biases, the survey instrument has been provided in respondents' native language and field researchers received good training prior to engaging in the field research (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009). All data were collected under the same conditions and all respondents were provided with identical information regarding the research study. Prevention of any possible measurement errors was obtained through a balanced formulation of measurement scales (7-point Likert scales). Acquiescence was controlled by avoiding any usage of vague or ambiguous wording (Knowles & Condon, 1999) and midpoint responding was also tackled by including an extra point of response, namely "0 = I cannot answer" (Weijters, Cabooter, & Schillewaert, 2010).

### *3.1.2 Sampling procedure and data collection*

The survey took place at the "Macedonia" International Airport of Thessaloniki, Greece (SKG) during July 1–15, 2014 and focused on tourists departing via charter flights towards London Heathrow, London Gatwick and Manchester airports. The UK tourist market was selected because it is one of the traditional markets for Northern Greece, and actually the second largest one, representing 9.5% of the total market and showing an annual increase of 13.2% for the years 2014/2013 (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2015). Thirty-five trained graduate students of business administration, in teams of five, distributed a self-administered questionnaire covering a daily sampling schedule between 08:00 and 22:00 hours. Passengers of charter flights were sampled based on systematic sampling of the two queues formed at

passport/hand luggage control. Every third tourist from both queues was asked to participate in the research study from Monday to Thursday; then, every fifth passenger from both queues was selected from Friday to Sunday (the busiest days of the week in the airport). Immediately after passing through hand luggage and passport controls tourists were asked to provide their opinions by completing the questionnaire, while sitting in the transit waiting area of the airport. Respondents were assured that the survey was anonymous, confidential and voluntary. Those who consented were given a copy of the questionnaire on a clipboard and a pen to provide their responses. Questionnaires typically took approximately twelve minutes to complete. During this 15-day-research period, a total of 1612 British tourists were approached, and 1387 agreed to participate in the field research study, yielding an 86.04% response rate. In all, 1362 usable questionnaires were collected resulting in a final response rate of 84.49%. Demographic characteristics of the UK respondents are provided in Appendix A, which also incorporates the profile characteristics of the Russian respondents to allow for more effective comparisons between the two studies.

### *3.1.3 Measures*

*Cognitive image:* The 21-item scale proposed by Stylos et al. (2016) was employed to measure the perceived consequences ( $Pc_i$ ) and evaluated importance ( $Vc_i$ ) in rating Chalkidiki as a tourist destination. Cognitive image items resulted as products of corresponding  $Pc_i$  and  $Vc_i$ . Respondents were asked to provide their opinions on 7-point Likert scales, anchored with “1=strongly disagree” to “7=strongly agree” and “1=totally unimportant” to “7=totally important”, respectively, including “0=I cannot answer” to reduce measurement error (Weijters et al., 2010).

*Affective image*: A 7-item measurement scale was adopted from Stylos et al. (2016). Respondents were asked to rate Chalkidiki as a tourist destination on a set of feelings in bipolar format. The scale utilized was a 7-point semantic differential, adding “0=I cannot describe my feeling”, in case respondents could not provide evaluation of items.

*Conative image*: This was measured with the 8-item scale proposed by Stylos et al. (2016). Survey participants were asked to respond on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from “1=strongly disagree” to “7=strongly agree”, and including a “0=I cannot answer” option to avoid false neutral evaluations.

*Holistic image*: It was measured with a single item in accordance with Echtner & Ritchie (2003). Respondents were asked to report their overall impression about Chalkidiki as a tourist destination. A 7-point semantic differential scale with anchors of “1=very negative” and “7=very positive” was employed and supported by smiley/sad faces at its extremes and midpoint.

*PA*: It was measured with an 8-item scale proposed by Prayag & Ryan (2012). A 7-point Likert scale anchored with “1=strongly disagree” and “7=strongly agree” was used to measure tourists’ responses, including “0=I cannot answer”.

*Intention to revisit destination*: Four items were used to measure intention to revisit Chalkidiki, which drew on the work of Stylos et al. (2016). A 7-point semantic differential scale was utilized, ranging from “1=extremely unlikely” to “7=extremely likely”, and “0=I cannot answer”, for those respondents being unsure of what to reply.

### 3.2 Study Two

#### 3.2.1 Methodology and Procedures

The same series of research procedures used in Study One was employed to maintain content validity and reliability of the measurement instrument. Moreover, to facilitate Russian tourists' responses the questionnaire was translated into Russian. To ensure the quality of translations involved, the questionnaire was translated from English to Russian via the double-back translation procedure with the assistance of two qualified translators (Brislin, 1980).

### *3.2.2 Sampling procedure and data collection*

Study Two was conducted under similar conditions and followed the same sampling and data collection procedures as Study One. It focused on tourists departing from Thessaloniki airport to all three connected airports of the Russian Federation, namely, Moscow Sheremetyevo, Omsk Tsentralny, and Novosibirsk Tolmachevo. The Russian tourist market was selected due to its rapid growth over the last 5 years, as well as its strong potential. Russia figures in the top five tourist markets for Greece, representing 5.7% of the total market, despite an annual decrease of 7.5% in 2014/2013 (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2015), mainly due to the collapse of Russian ruble in mid-2014. Data collection took place during August 17–31, 2014. During the 15 days of research, 1432 Russian tourists were approached after hand luggage and passport control by the same trained team of field researchers and following the same systematic sampling scheme as in the first study. 1212 tourists agreed to fill out the questionnaire. This procedure produced 1164 usable questionnaires yielding an overall response rate of 81.28%. The demographic profile of the Russian participants is provided in Appendix A.

### *3.2.3 Measures*

The same measures as study One have been used to record the Russian tourists' responses.

**Table 1**

Independent samples t-test on visitation frequency for the UK and Russian tourists.

Variable	t	df	p-value	Mean difference	Std.Error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference	
						Lower	Upper
Visitation frequency	11.270	2015.062	.000	.941	.084	.778	1.105

**Table 2**

Construct Reliability and Validity measures of the measurement models for UK and Russian tourist markets

	Market	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Conative Image	Affective Image	Cognitive Image	Revisit Intention	Place Attachment
Conative Image	UK	.909	.555	.438	.238	.745				
	RU	.915	.575	.433	.349	.758				
Affective Image	UK	.917	.626	.095	.048	.210	.791			
	RU	.921	.631	.219	.145	.468	.795			
Cognitive Image	UK	.860	.619	.183	.114	.428	.308	.787		
	RU	.886	.669	.359	.218	.599	.451	.818		
Revisit Intention	UK	.918	.737	.367	.194	.536	.166	.306	.859	
	RU	.944	.810	.386	.236	.621	.302	.399	.900	
Place Attachment	UK	.943	.674	.438	.229	.662	.158	.291	.606	.821
	RU	.931	.631	.433	.240	.658	.261	.389	.556	.794

Note: CR: Composite reliability, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum Shared Squared Variance, ASV: Average Shared Squared Variance, UK: United Kingdom, RU: Russia.

#### 4. Comparative Results

Identical research procedures and actions were followed in both studies to allow comparison of results. First, missing values analysis (MVA) has been conducted before proceeding with descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling (Hair et al., 2010). Results indicate that in both studies all missing values follow a completely random pattern, i.e.  $\chi_1^2 = 2990.262$ ,  $df = 2934$ ,  $Sig_1 = 0.230$  and  $\chi_2^2 = 2971.890$ ,  $df = 2934$ ,  $Sig_2 = 0.308$  (Little, 1988).

To test whether significant differences exist between the UK and Russian tourists with respect to their visitation frequency to Chalkidiki, an independent samples t-test was

performed. Table 1 shows that frequencies of visitation differ significantly between the two populations, implying that the two populations may have different visitation patterns, and supporting the selection of PA as a potential moderator of the effects exerted from images on intention to revisit.

Next, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to verify the measurement scales. CFA verified all items for images, PA and intention to revisit measurement scales, as all factor loadings exceeded 0.50 (Janssens, Wijnen, Pelsmacker, & Van Kenhove, 2008).

Appendix B shows descriptive characteristics for the final list of indicators, providing means and standard deviations. Moreover, standard loadings, standard errors and t-statistics of the relationships between indicators and latent variables resulting from CFA are provided. All loadings and t-statistics were significant at  $\alpha=0.001$  level of significance.

Absolute, incremental and parsimony fit indices satisfy the established criteria for large samples of measurement and structural models alike. The square root of average variance extracted between the different pairs of factors was found in all cases to be greater than the estimated correlation of the factors, supporting discriminant validity of the proposed structures included measurement models for both UK and Russian samples (Table 2). According to fit indices reported in Table 3, the structural model fits both samples received from the UK and Russian tourist populations well. In the structural model, the PA latent variable has been substituted by a composite one to reduce the complexity of the model's structure, as well as the complexity of the interaction components themselves due to the inclusion of the four moderating variables. The findings from both studies offer support to the same direct, mediating and moderating effects, as shown in Figure 2.

The direct effect from cognitive image towards intention to revisit a destination (IRD henceforth) were found to be non-significant for both UK and Russian tourist markets; the same findings appear for affective image in both cases, thus not offering support to  $H_1$  and  $H_2$

**Table 3**

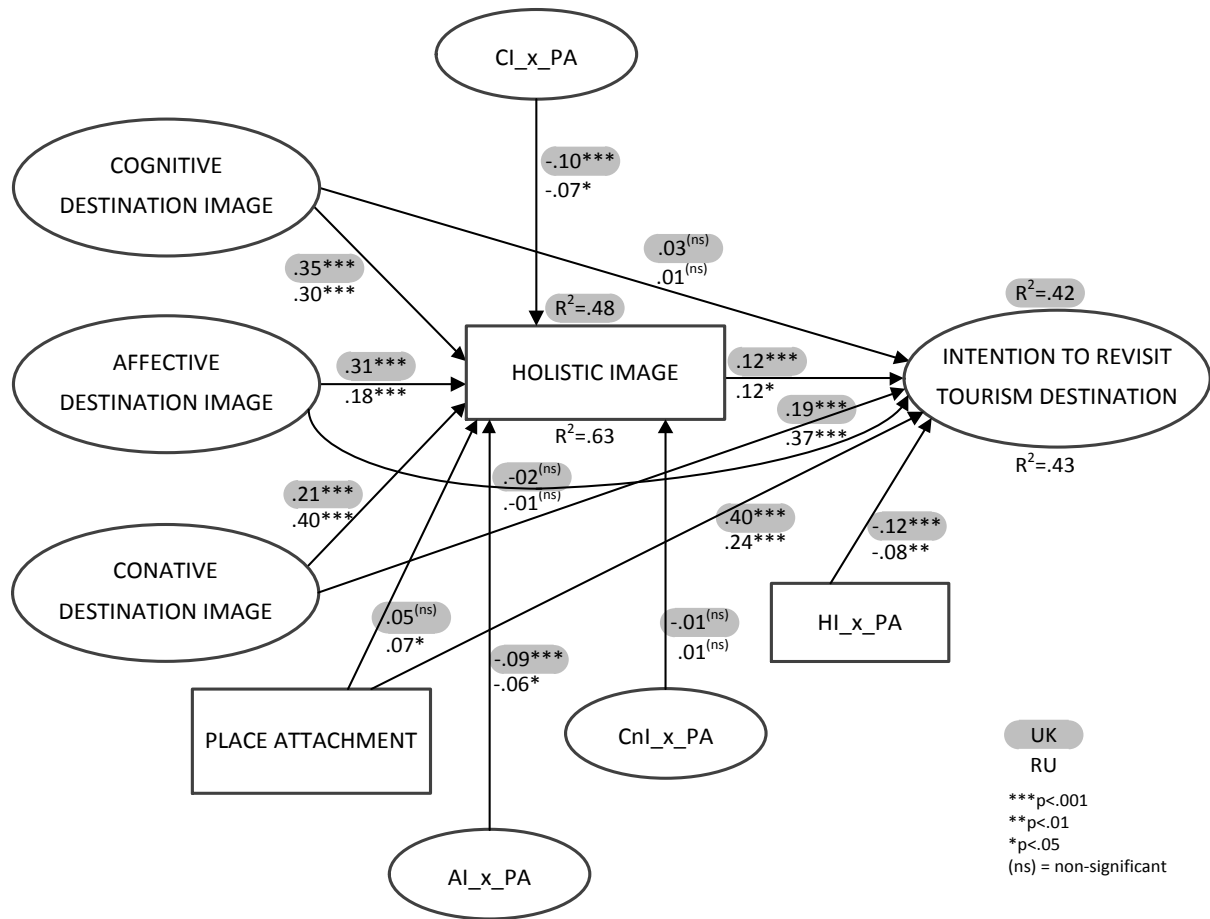
Fit Indices of structural model for both studies.

Fit Indices	Study One	Study Two	Criteria
$\chi^2/df$	3.753 for $p<.001$	2.888 for $p<.001$	$<5.0$
CFI	.922	.928	$>0.90$
TLI	.914	.924	$>0.90$
RMSEA	.051	.044	$<0.08$
SRMR	.0620	.0566	$<.08$ (CFI $>.92$ )

Note:  $\chi^2/df$ : chi-square normed, CFI: Comparative fit index, TLI: Tucker Lewis index, RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation, SRMR: Standardized root mean residual.

(see Table 4). However, the effect from conative image on IRD is strongly significant ( $\beta^1_{CnI-IRD} = 0.186$ ,  $\beta^2_{CnI-IRD} = 0.367$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), confirming H<sub>3</sub>. The influences of cognitive, affective and conative images on holistic image, as well as that of holistic image on IRD are also significant (Table 4). Hence, our findings offer support to hypotheses H<sub>4a</sub>, H<sub>4b</sub> and H<sub>4c</sub> for both samples. PA has been found to exert a significant and positive effect onto IRD ( $\beta^1_{PA-IRD} = 0.405$ ,  $\beta^2_{PA-IRD} = 0.239$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) providing support to H<sub>5</sub>.

Regarding the proposed moderations of PA on the relationships between the different image components and holistic image, Table 4 presents significant and negative moderating effects on the relationships between cognitive and holistic ( $\beta^1_{PA|CI-IRD} = -0.100$ ,  $p<0.001$  and  $\beta^2_{PA|CI-IRD} = -0.075$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), as well as affective and holistic images ( $\beta^1_{PA|AI-IRD} = -0.087$ ,  $p<0.001$  and  $\beta^2_{PA|AI-IRD} = -0.065$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). This suggests that the positive effects of cognitive and affective images on holistic image are negatively moderated by PA, thus only providing partial support to H<sub>5a</sub> and H<sub>5b</sub> for both tourist markets. Furthermore, the proposed moderation of PA on the relationship between conative and holistic images is not supported ( $\beta^1_{PA|CnI-IRD} = -0.010$ ,  $p=0.707>0.05$  and  $\beta^2_{PA|CnI-IRD} = 0.008$ ,  $p=0.821>0.05$ ), thus leading to the rejection of H<sub>5c</sub> in both studies. Concluding, the positive influence of holistic image on IRD is negatively moderated by PA ( $\beta^1_{PA|HI-IRD} = -0.123$ ,  $p<0.01$  and  $\beta^2_{PA|HI-IRD} = -0.080$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), which provides partial support for H<sub>6</sub>.



**Fig. 2.** Structural model results for the UK and Russian tourist markets.

**Table 4**

Results obtained for the structural model relationships tested for both UK and Russian markets.

Regression paths			Market	St.RW	S.E.	C.R.	p
Holistic Image	←	Cognitive Image	UK	.348	.04	12.778	<.001
			RU	.297	.05	8.368	<.001
Holistic Image	←	Affective Image	UK	.305	.03	13.262	<.001
			RU	.184	.03	6.429	<.001
Holistic Image	←	Conative Image	UK	.214	.04	7.026	<.001
			RU	.401	.05	9.419	<.001
Holistic Image	←	Place Attachment	UK	.052	.03	1.943	.052
			RU	.072	.03	2.276	.023
Revisit Intention	←	Cognitive Image	UK	.034	.04	1.139	.255
			RU	.009	.06	.213	.832
Revisit Intention	←	Affective Image	UK	-.017	.03	-.658	.511
			RU	-.013	.04	-.343	.731
Revisit Intention	←	Conative Image	UK	.186	.04	5.519	<.001
			RU	.367	.06	6.514	<.001
Revisit Intention	←	Holistic Image	UK	.121	.04	6.019	<.001



Regression paths			Market	St.RW	S.E.	C.R.	p
Revisit Intention	←	Place Attachment	RU	.121	.04	2.475	.013
			UK	.405	.03	13.615	<.001
Holistic Image	←	CI_x_PA	RU	.239	.04	5.989	<.001
			UK	-.100	.04	-3.594	<.001
Holistic Image	←	AI_x_PA	RU	-.075	.05	-2.203	.028
			UK	-.087	.05	-3.640	<.001
Holistic Image	←	CnI_x_PA	RU	-.065	.04	-2.278	.023
			UK	-.010	.03	-.376	.707
Revisit Intention	←	HI_x_PA	RU	.008	.03	.226	.821
			UK	-.123	.02	-5.454	<.001
			RU	-.080	.02	-2.646	.008

Note: PA: Place attachment, HI: Holistic image, CI: Cognitive image, AI: Affective image, CnI: Conative image, UK: United Kingdom, RU: Russia, St. RW: Standardized regression weight, S.E.: Standard error, C.R.: Critical ratio, p: p-value.

P<sub>1</sub> is partially supported, suggesting that a different ranking of the cognitive, affective and conative images indirect effects on intention to revisit is encountered for the two populations under study, which is vastly balanced out by the moderating influence of PA. In particular, for British tourists cognitive image ranks first, affective second, and conative third, whereas for Russian tourists conative image ranks first, cognitive second, and affective third (see Figure 2). However, an examination of the critical ratios differences in the relationships tested between the two markets showed overall no significant differences and the application of the structural model. This particular finding (see Table 5) supports the global applicability of the proposed model to both western and non-western tourist markets.

To further draw on the moderating role of PA, a series of plots was produced. In Figure 3, a low PA moderating effect does not considerably affect the positive influences of cognitive and affective images on holistic image, whereas a strong moderating effect relaxes the same relationships. Similarly, a high PA moderating effect reduces the positive influence of holistic image on IRD (see Figure 4). These findings apply to both tourist markets under investigation analogously.

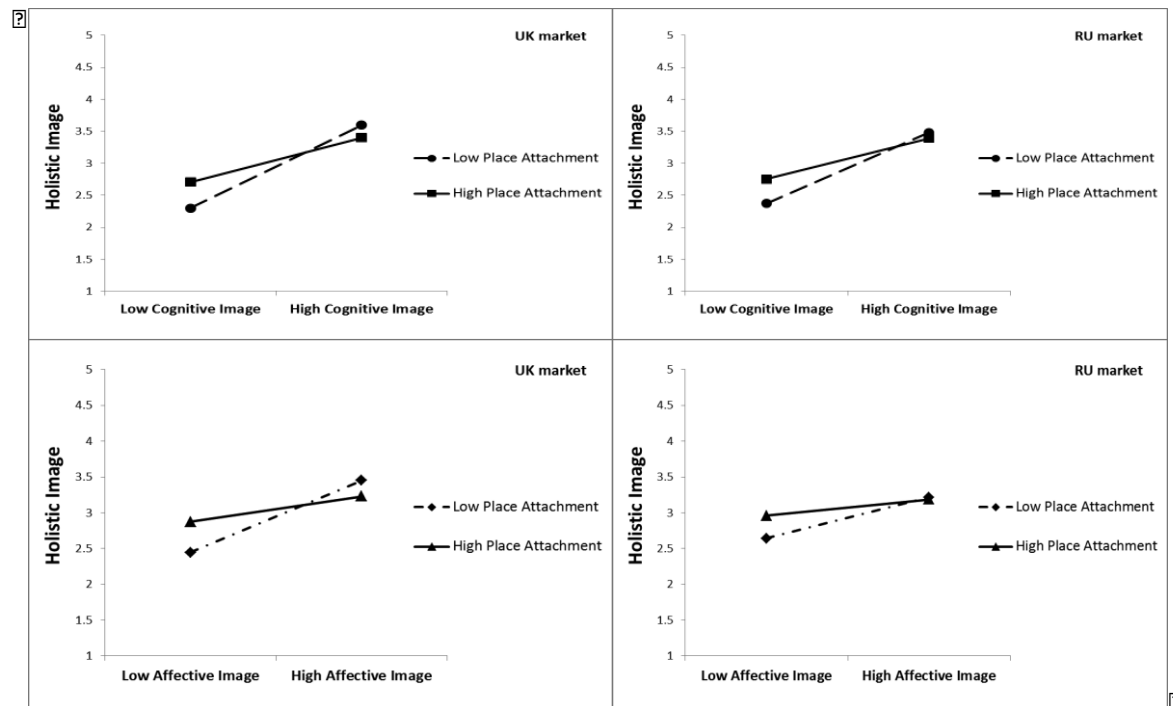
The proposed model has good explanatory power for both the UK and Russian tourists. The model explained 48% and 63% of holistic image variance, as well as 42 % and

**Table 5**

Critical Ratios Differences of regression weights (factor loadings) per tourist market.

	UK		RU		z-score
	Unstd. RW	p	Unstd. RW	p	
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ Cognitive Image	.498	.000	.437	.000	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ Affective Image	.341	.000	.201	.000	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ Conative Image	.284	.000	.466	.000	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ CnI_x_PA	-.010	.707	.008	.821	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ Place Attachment	.052	.052	.072	.023	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ AI_x_PA	-.163	.000	-.086	.023	.000
Holistic Image $\leftarrow$ CI_x_PA	-.152	.000	-.117	.028	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ Holistic Image	.108	.000	.108	.013	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ Place Attachment	.361	.000	.212	.000	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ HI_x_PA	-.086	.000	-.059	.008	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ Conative Image	.219	.000	.380	.000	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ Cognitive Image	.043	.255	.012	.832	.000
Revisit Intention $\leftarrow$ Affective Image	-.017	.511	-.012	.731	.000

Note: Unstd. RW: Unstandardized Regression Weight, p: p-value, UK: United Kingdom, RU: Russia

**Fig. 3.** Plots of significant cognitive image x PA and affective image x PA interactions for predicting holistic image for both UK and Russian tourist markets.



**Figure 4.** Plot of significant holistic image x PA interaction for predicting revisit intention to Chalkidiki for both the UK and Russian tourist markets.

43% of IRD variances for the UK and Russian samples, respectively. All previous figures regarding the model's predictive power exceed the 25% benchmark for large effects (Cohen, 1988), indicating its high degree of usefulness.

## 5. Discussion

### 5.1 Theoretical implications

This study investigated the relationship between components of destination image (affective, cognitive, and conative), holistic image, PA, and intention to revisit a destination among tourists of two notably different national populations, namely British and Russian tourists. In congruence with the hypothesized relationships, findings revealed that all destination images have a positive indirect effect on tourists' intention to revisit a destination via holistic image, while conative has a direct effect, as well. These findings extend previous limited evidence combining components of image and holistic image to predict tourists' attitudinal and behavioral responses (Bigné et al., 2009; Qu et al., 2011; Stylos et al., 2016). Important to note is that this is actually the first study to demonstrate the positive impact that all three components of image (cognitive, affective, and conative) have upon tourists' intention to revisit a destination, via holistic image. The confirmation of these relationships also offers support to previous works (i.e. Gallarza, Saura, & García, 2002; Stylos et al., 2016)

questioning the hierarchical relationship initially proposed by Gartner (1994). Hence, contrary to approaches suggesting that conative destination image results from cognitive and affective destination image, our findings show that they act in parallel predicting tourists' attitudinal and behavioral responses. Even more, the effect that cognitive, affective, and conative destination images have on holistic image designates the distinctiveness of the latter and underpins its predictive value over tourists' intention to revisit a destination. As previous researchers noted, holistic image may reflect either more or more meaningful impressions, ideas, expectations and emotional thoughts of tourists (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Stylos et al., 2016; Um & Crompton, 1990).

As aforementioned, the study incorporated British and Russian tourists. Albeit our findings do not suggest significantly different effects of components of images on revisit intention, they do imply a different relative importance as British tourists seem to value primarily cognitive, then affective, and least conative images. Russian tourists' intention to revisit a destination is based primarily upon conative, then upon cognitive, and least upon affective images. This divergence in the relative significance that tourists place on the three components of image can be explained by their profile as tourists. Given that British are more experienced tourists and more frequent visitors of Greece, it is likely they are more informed about the destination and more demanding. In doing so, they may put more effort in the cognitive aspects of the destination, searching for extended pieces of formal and informal information relating to destination's characteristics and offerings and planning their vacations heavily on a value for money basis, before they decide to revisit a destination, in order to make the most out of it. As regards Russians, who are less experienced tourists and more likely to have visited Greece fewer times, conative images appear as the most important probably because their aspirations, visions and dreams are the main drivers of their decision making, whereas their beliefs and knowledge on tangible attributes of the destinations seem

to be less influential. The fact that Russian tourists have fewer pieces of information for a destination and for destinations in general may urge them to return, based on their intrinsic motivation to interact again with the specific tourism destination, to carry through with any incomplete goals of a previous journey, and thus allow them to fulfill their need for self-actualization (Huitt & Cain, 2005).

Evidently, different tourist populations place different relative importance on the components of image as predictors of tourists' intentions. Therefore, albeit all three components of image exert a positive effect on tourists' revisit intention, there is no clear evidence as to which image dimension can better explain such tourists' intention. Consequently, the indirect effect of cognitive, affective, and conative image on intention to revisit via holistic image appears to be universal in nature, but with varying importance for different national populations. Such variance may relate to the fact that nationality may influence the structure of images of a destination that tourists create (Beerli & Martin, 2004b; Kozak et al., 2004; Prayag & Ryan, 2011).

As regards the examination of PA as a moderating variable, it appears that the indirect effect of cognitive and affective destination image and the effect of all three components of destination image through holistic image are conditional. Specifically, our findings suggest that, for both British and Russian tourists, positive cognitive and affective destination images are likely to exert a more positive holistic image for the destination among tourists with low PA compared to tourists with a high PA to that destination. In a similar vein, the effect that all three images have on revisit intention via holistic image is stronger for tourists with low PA compared to tourists with high PA. Thus, as expected, tourists' PA to a destination does regulate the relationship between the components of destination image and intention to revisit this destination. This finding denotes that tourists with a high PA are more likely to be less affected by cognitive and affective images they hold for a destination when they feel close to

it. Consequently, PA to a tourism destination, reflecting the emotional bond between a tourist and that particular destination, highlights the salient role of the subjective affective states in tourists' decision making process. As Basch (1988, p. 68–69) notes, “There is no action and no thought that is not affectively motivated... Motivation underpins agency and motivation is always emotional”. Overall, our findings are in congruence with Morgan's (2010) suggestion that PA theory can benefit from the detailed and epistemological approach of attachment theory. This key role of PA implies that the overall impression of a destination could be less significant in the eyes of tourists than the emotional bond that tourists hold of a destination. Given that PA is socially constructed (Manzo & Devine-Wright, 2013), attachment to the people that make up a destination could make a difference to a tourist's decision to revisit a destination. Indeed, as Altman & Low (1992, p. 7) postulate, “attachments may not only be to landscapes solely as physical entities, but may be primarily associated with the meanings of and experiences in place – which often involve relationships with other people”. Finally, in line with previous studies (e.g. George & George, 2004; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Lee & Shen, 2013; Neuvonen et al., 2010; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ryan, 1995), PA also has a direct effect on tourists' intention to revisit a destination, highlighting the role of tourists' emotional bond with tourism destinations. In conclusion, PA appears to have a salient effect on the tourists' decision making process, underlining the need to further incorporate it in related tourism studies.

## *5.2 Practical implications*

Intention to revisit a destination is a proxy for loyalty (i.e. Lau & McKercher, 2004; Oppermann, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) as the likelihood to return to a destination for future vacations reveals “a deeply held commitment” (Oliver 1997, p. 392). Therefore, unraveling the factors that boost tourists' intention to revisit is always timely from a practical

perspective, helping DMOs and public authorities to attain sustainable development and success of the tourism product. Accordingly, based on our findings, several initiatives could be taken to increase tourists' revisit intentions.

As regards cognitive image, which ranks first in shaping British tourists' holistic image, destination marketers should support creation and publication of useful information, advances and late news regarding the destination qualities and related activities to the media of tourist market sources. In more specific, a digital marketing communications mix incorporating online reviews (e.g. Tripadvisor), blogs, microblogs, wikis and travelogues could potentially initiate positive word-of-mouth communication. Also, applying focused email marketing along with selected social media marketing tools should also be considered as very important for creating a successful integrated communication scheme. In addition to Facebook and Twitter, there are also available social media platforms dedicated to travel (e.g. WAYN) that could be used to promote a destination. Some of the search engine marketing techniques are potentially suitable for increasing the visibility of destination-related websites, thus greatly contributing into transmitting the information to the targeted audiences more easily. The informational campaign can be greatly enriched in all previous applications by the convergence of text, audio, animation and graphics. All in all, the engagement of travellers with the aforementioned marketing tools may prove invaluable to forming their intention to revisit the destination.

Concerning the impact of conative image on intention to revisit, which ranks first for Russian tourists, practitioners may exploit the latest technological advancements in the mobile marketing area to actively engage and inspire travellers to plan and live a new set of activities and experiences during their next visit to the destination. In this vein, mobile marketing offers several applications that would potentially stimulate travellers' interest

through active engagement with the destination. The gamified virtual travel experience apps (e.g. Expedia's Around the World in 100 days) and the location-based augmented reality games are two very interesting applications that take tourists on interactive virtual trips, thus travelling in space and time without leaving the secure environment of their home. Hence, it is possible to evaluate different travel experiences, styles and destinations before a decision is actually made.

Finally, as regards affective image which ranks in the second and third position for British and Russian tourists respectively, enhancement can be realized by developing strong emotional messages through films, TV series and reality shows that take place at a tourism destination (Kim, 2012), as for example the shooting of "Mamma Mia" in the Greek island of Skiathos. The use of audiovisual products is lately considered a cornerstone in creating favorable affective images, as tourists place less importance on reading and more on visual information of a destination (Hudson, Wang, & Gil, 2011). Films have been reported to shape not only the affective but also the conative image of a destination, due to the imaginary transfer of the audience to a fantasy world. A key role of films is to shape holistic tourist experiences by influencing images, awareness and motivation to explore one's own travel desires (Croy, 2010). An extension of exploiting the power of the film industry to support the destination image is film tourism, namely tourists visiting the actual place of filming, thus complementing the initial image formation process (Hudson et al., 2011).

Given the mediating role of holistic image and the fact that it summarizes the overall experience, the function of every contact point for tourists should be aligned and directed towards creating a unique touristic experience that exceeds their expectations. In line with this, using destination branding has been reported to support the overall image, creating unique experiences, and ultimately differentiating a destination from other competing ones



(Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005). Consequently, in our case, designing a robust destination brand personality and implementing an integrated marketing communications (IMC) program would potentially enhance holistic image for tourists who have a low place attachment and increase the level of place attachment for all tourists. Therefore, an overarching destination image strategy framework would be necessary to assess and measure the actual overall destination image, assess and design the target tourist markets' ideal image, and finally bridge any identified differences in order to feed-forward the process of amending the actual images (Croy, 2010). The development of an image strategy should be a priority for DMOs and part of their destination marketing DNA.

Based on the evidence on the moderating role of PA, it appears that for tourists with low PA, special emphasis should be given to cognitive and affective image in particular, in order to improve holistic image and, in turn, revisit intention. In doing so, all entities responsible for attracting and serving tourists should focus on developing tourist products that emphasize the affective aspects of visitation and make it enjoyable, exciting, or relaxing, based on what targeted tourists value the most. Finally, our study also revealed two direct effects, of conative image and PA on revisit intention. In terms of conative, managers of DMOs could promote the experience of visiting the destination through events that combine gastronomy, culture and hospitality in the home countries of those tourists who are critical for the destination. In addition, the creation of stories based on local traditions, culture and historical facts could stimulate interest in visiting a destination by increasing the desire to share that experience; storytelling facilitates the development of a destination's unique identity and could motivate tourists to seek desirable experiences in a dream destination (Hsu, Dehuang, & Woodside, 2009). To enhance the effectiveness of such promotional initiatives, DMOs should be active on social media, invite and encourage tourists to post comments on social media platforms, thus facilitating the dissemination of stories about their overall visit

experience by word of mouse. Concerning PA, local planners, public services and individuals (community members, entrepreneurs and investors) could work together to develop a tourism destination that better reflects tourists' desires (to increase their emotional attachment) and needs (to add to their functional attachment). To achieve that, research on what is valued by tourists is essential.

Overall, all the previous activities mentioned would be particularly effective for DMOs during segmenting and targeting favorable tourist markets, reinforcing the positioning of the local tourism destination product. That would be of particular interest to mature destinations, as most southern European ones are, in terms of rejuvenating their tourism destination area life cycle (TALC) (Baum, 1998; Butler, 1980, 2004).

## **6. Limitations and further research**

As with any study, the present one has some limitations that could serve as the basis for future research. First, the measurement scales had not been pre-tested with UK tourists, although the majority of the scales compiling the survey instrument had been pre-tested with Russian tourists in a previous publication (Stylos et al., 2016). Second, we have used tourists' intention to revisit as a proxy for destination loyalty. As such, future studies could specifically investigate tourists' loyalty to a destination and their habits at that destination. Third, it has been suggested that prior experience with a destination influences revisit intention (Alegre & Cladera, 2006). In this vein, repeat visitation or satisfaction could be included as control variables in alternative theoretical structures. Fourth, intention to return has been used as a good approximation of the actual return to Chalkidiki, since it has been reported as "the most accurate prediction of an actual destination revisit" (Han & Kim, 2010). Despite that, it cannot be argued that revisit intentions and actual repeat visitation necessarily coincide. Therefore, a longitudinal study could check on the relationship between revisit

intentions and actual tourists' return to the same destination. Fifth, this study does not distinguish between repeat visitors and true loyal ones. Thus, in line with Lee et al., (2007), future research could examine whether our proposed model applies to both or not. Sixth, given the dynamic nature of destination images (Gallarza et al., 2002; Gartner, 1986), longitudinal studies could add to the findings of this study. Seventh, we only tested our hypothesized relationships among British and Russian tourists. Future researchers could also test it among Asian and Chinese tourists, as they comprise the tourist population which is most increasing and/or take into consideration the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (2011) to allow for greater details on potential differences in relative importance of destination image components. Eighth, segmentation of the samples with respect to revisit intentions could take place by using discriminant analysis to offer extra insights into distinct groups of tourists. Finally, we examined the combined moderating effect of PA dimensions. As such, future researchers could investigate the distinct role of place identity and place dependence, since there is evidence that they may not act uniformly (Williams & Vaske, 2003).

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